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ABSTRACT

This monograph attempts to provide a new framework in which to understand children's perceptions of one another and suggests some methods for effecting positive change in interpersonal attitudes and behavior. Section one of the document provides a general introduction to the others-concept, a term which refers to a person's perceptions of others. Section two provides a definition and some explanation of the others-concept as an orientation toward others which appears to develop early in life. The third section presents empirical findings that demonstrate the relationship between a person's others-concept and actual behavior. In the fourth section an effort is made to understand the development of the others-concept in the context of well-established theories of developmental psychology. Section five deals with the assessment of a person's others-concept, including formal testing by means of the Paired Hands Test and also informal procedures that the teacher may devise. Practical suggestions and ideas for teachers are presented in the sixth section. Some conclusions and references appear at the end. (DS)

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STUDIES IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT NO. 5, 1978

THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN OTHERS-CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

by
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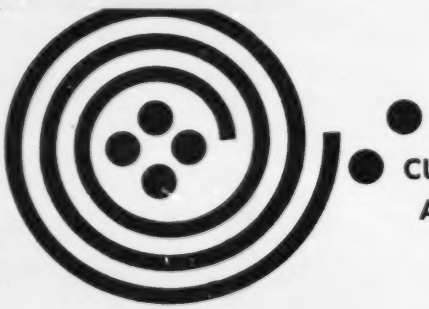

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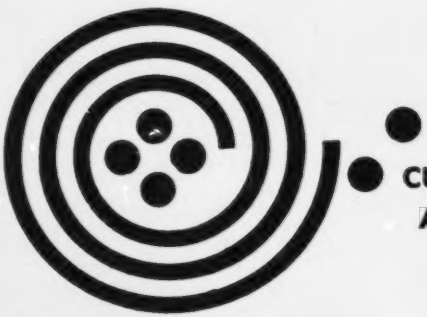

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FOREWORD

Pressing problems force solutions or alternatives, but sometimes spin-offs along the way dwarf even the original ideas. The development of the "others-concept" presented in this monograph is a good example of the problem concept, a search for the answers, and as bits and pieces of data became available, a new concept began to crystallize.

This all began with the development of an idea which brought together a small international group of young people with various backgrounds, home countries, and, of course, languages. Observing their adjustments to each other and the overall situations helped pose the first problem. How could the different adjustment relationships be described? The use of tests did not seem promising as the young people lacked a common ground of experiences. Expert observation showed the need for a different means of description or comparison.

As with Dewey's "learn to ski in summer and swim in winter" concept, closure came later when thought and discussions focused on the idea of "friendliness" as the possible core to personal adjustment. But what is friendliness and how can it be measured? This concept was off the beaten path.

Therefore, another practical problem was posed. If friendliness is a practical approach to personal adjustment, how can it be ascertained? A device or technique for estimating friendliness would seem to be in the projective area. An idea! How would young people respond to the pictures of two hands, obviously belonging to different people, doing something toward or with the other? Could responses to what the person felt the hands were doing be scored as characteristics of friendliness between the people? The *Paired Hands Test* was devised.

The use of the test with its spin-offs of both questions and answers led to the development of the "others-concept" and is the gist of this monograph.

Rutherford B. Porter

C

PREFACE

It is no secret to teachers that a well-adjusted child is generally a friendly child, a child who perceives others in a positive manner. Teachers also know full well that in order to improve the social climate of the classroom they must somehow try to improve the interpersonal interactions of their students. But how? The authors of this monograph have attempted to provide a new framework in which to understand childrens' perceptions of one another and suggest some methods for effecting positive change in interpersonal attitudes and behavior.

Section 1 provides a general introduction to the others-concept, a term which refers to a person's perceptions of others. The authors believe that the attention given to the development of students' self-concepts should be paralleled with equal consideration of students' others-concepts. Section 2 provides a definition and some explanation of the others-concept, an orientation toward others which appears to develop early in life. It not only informs us about a person's perceptions of others but appears to provide an indication of the manner in which a person might expect other people to behave. The third section presents empirical findings which demonstrate the relationship between a person's others-concept and actual behavior. For example, it has been found that children with positive others-concepts tend to interact in a more cooperative and friendly manner than children with negative others-concepts. Other studies have investigated the relationship between the others-concept and many different variables such as self-concept, moral development, nationality differences, socioeconomic status, sex differences and general personality adjustment.

In the fourth section an effort is made to understand the development of the others-concept in the context of well-established theories of developmental psychology. Consideration is given to such matters as developmental stages, effects of conditioning, social learning, and some personality attributes of the individual. Section 5 deals with the assessment of a person's others-concept, including formal testing by means of the *Paired Hands Test* and also informal procedures which the teacher may devise. The types of behaviors to look for to gain insight into the others-concept are presented as well as the most helpful situations in which to observe these behaviors. Practical suggestions and ideas for teachers are presented in the sixth section. These are drawn from a variety of sources that have relevance for others-concept development, including techniques of affective education and behavior management. The last section provides a summary and some conclusions that may be drawn.

It is always exciting for the human spirit to encounter a new construct, such as the others-concept, to gain insight into human behavior. This monograph should help to make the role of the teacher more exciting by providing a new framework to study students' perceptions of other people and to effect positive change that will lead ultimately to a better world.

Liam K. Grimley

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THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN OTHERS-CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

I. INTRODUCTION

Educators have no trouble finding advice and suggestions for dealing with students who have difficulties with interpersonal relationships. All teachers have probably tried a wide variety of approaches and have many thoughts of their own on the subject. But how does one organize those thoughts? Is there a systematic approach for dealing with troublesome and troubled students which is theoretically sound, yet practical for the average classroom teacher?

One positive step in that direction, the one advocated in this monograph, would be for teachers to organize some of their efforts around the improvement of their students' others-concepts. *Others-concept* is a term which refers to a person's perceptions and expectancies about other people as measured along a positive-negative continuum. In contrast to the self-concept, which focuses upon a person's view of himself or herself, the others-concept examines a person's view of other people. The experimental findings which led to the others-concept and the conclusions which followed offer a fresh way of thinking about many of the behavior problems seen in the school setting. This, in turn, can lead to some different approaches for teachers to use in order to have a constructive influence on the personality and behavior of their students.

Following an elaboration of what is meant by the term, "others-concept," and a summary of the data which show how a student's others-concept is related to his or her behavior and other attributes, this monograph describes ways in which teachers can play a constructive role in helping students to improve their others-concepts. Some of the suggestions offered can be implemented readily by teachers in an incidental manner, while others will be of more interest to teachers who wish to work on others-concept development more intensely. The theme throughout will be that while a positive others-concept is surely not a cure-all, it bears a significant relationship to interpersonal behavior. For that reason it can provide teachers with a central focus around which to organize their efforts for helping students improve their social relationships.

II. WHAT IS THE OTHERS-CONCEPT?

The others-concept is a personality construct which provides insight into a person's perceptions and expectancies about other people. It is measured along a positive-negative continuum. The low or negative end of this continuum represents hostile, suspicious perceptions of other people and the expectancy that others will display aggressive or unfriendly behaviors. The high end of the continuum represents warm, positive perceptions of others and the expectancy that they will display kind and friendly behaviors.

Of course, many factors in addition to the others-concept influence how a person expects other people to act. The others-concept, nevertheless, has been demonstrated to have a pervasive influence on a person's expectations. It appears to be an orientation which develops early in life as a result of the interactions which people have with their immediate family. What factors are involved and how they operate will be discussed later in the developmental section of this monograph.

The others-concept construct provides an indication of the manner in which individuals might expect other people to react to and interact with them. A person with a positive others-concept would be expected generally to be more trusting of others than a person with a negative others-concept. People with positive others-concepts, anticipating warmth and friendliness from others, are likely to react in the same manner. People with negative others-concepts are likely to distrust others, hold them in suspicion, and perhaps exhibit unfriendly behavior toward them. Such behavior, in turn, would tend to provoke similar hostile reactions from others.

It is readily apparent from this discussion that an individual's others-concept and his or her interactions with other people are likely to become involved in a circular reaction pattern. That is to say, one's perceptions and expectancies of others have an important influence on how one actually interacts with others. In turn, how an individual interacts with others greatly influences the type and quality of responses he or she receives from others. Therefore, a reinforcing cycle is set in motion which may continue indefinitely unless something or someone intervenes.

III. RELEVANCE FOR TEACHERS

The relevance of the others-concept for teachers and the educational setting can be illustrated through empirical findings which have demonstrated the relationship between a person's others-concept and his or her actual behavior. There is evidence from a series of studies to show that people who have high others-concepts tend to interact more positively with others than do people who have low others-concepts (Barnett & Zucker, 1973, 1975, 1977). In one of these studies (Barnett & Zucker, 1977) the *Paired Hands Test*, an instrument specifically developed to measure an individual's others-concept and which will be described in a later section of this monograph, was administered to 1,235 fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade children enrolled in public school regular classes. Children with high and low others-concepts were identified by using a cutoff score of 1.25 standard deviations above and below the mean on the *Paired Hands Test*. One hundred twenty children who were so identified were assigned to small groups of four children each for the purpose of behavioral comparisons. Tape recordings were made of these children's comments as they worked together on a variety of tasks (e.g., tasks involving puzzle completions or building from a model with Tinkertoys). Judges were later asked to rate the comments of each child as to whether they were task-related or nontask-related and whether such comments were positive or negative. The results obtained indicated that there exists ". . . a general tendency for children with a positive others-concept to interact in a more cooperative and friendly manner than children with a negative others-concept . . . . " (Barnett & Zucker, 1977, p. 137). It should be understood that most children in these studies exhibited both positive and negative behavior but that group trends showed a statistically significant tendency for the children with positive others-concepts to act more positively on the average than children with negative others-concepts.

It might be expected, then, that a classroom which consists mainly of children with positive others-concepts would have a more positive and cooperative environment or social climate than a classroom where most children have negative others-concepts. This hypothesis was supported by a study in which children who had low and high self- and others-concepts were compared on the basis of their perceptions of their classroom environment. Children in the high self- and high others-concept group had significantly greater mean scores on the classroom factors of Involvement, Affiliation, Teacher Support, and Satisfaction, and a significantly lower mean score on the classroom factor of Friction than children in the low self- and low others-concept group (Galluzzi, 1978).

In addition to the relationship between the others-concept and actual behavior in social situations, the others-concept construct has been found to be related to a variety of other variables with which educators are familiar and which have significance for the school setting. Hence, a brief review of pertinent research involving the others-concept will be presented in order to illustrate further the construct's relevance for educators.

In one study, Kohlberg's schema of moral development involving six developmental stages (within three levels of moral maturity--the Preconventional, Conventional, and Post-Conventional or Principled) was found to be related to the others-concept construct. Those individuals who had high others-concepts showed a tendency to think at a higher moral level than those who had low others-concepts (Whiteman, 1976; Whiteman, Zucker, & Grimley, 1978). They expressed significantly more concern for the rights of others and much more positive attitudes toward social convention.

The quality of children's others-concepts, especially when considered along with their self-concepts, has also been compared to the level of their general personality adjustment. Children who had both high others-concepts and high self-concepts were found to be better adjusted, both personally and socially, as measured by the *California Test of Personality* (Thorpe, 1953), than children who demonstrated any other possible high-low combinations of self- and others-concepts (Galluzzi & Zucker, 1977). In reference to more specific personality characteristics, children were administered the *Children's Personality Questionnaire* (Porter & Cattell, 1972), which measures fourteen personality traits. Children with high others-concepts were found to be more accommodating, sensitive, conscientious, forthright, spontaneous, and self-disciplined than those with low others-concepts. (Kirchhoff, 1977).

Children enrolled in regular public school classes who were described by their teachers as having the kinds of symptoms typically associated with learning disabilities and emotional disturbances were found to have lower others-concepts than the other children in their respective classrooms. Furthermore, children having problems not easily described by their teachers were found to have lower others-concepts than most other children in their respective classes (Hart, 1975).

In a cross-national study conducted in the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland, Burzynski found a significant relationship between the others-concepts of a large sample of school children and the stability and security of the society in which they were living (Burzynski, 1978). Alexander and Anderson (1957) have stated that "there is a coexistence between the conditions of deprivation and disintegration in the security systems of a culture and the perceptions of the individual" (pp. 54-55). Burzynski's findings support this statement. He found that the others-concepts of children growing up in an environment of tension and violence were significantly lower than those of children from cultures relatively

free from such cultural pressures. Children from other sub-cultural groups which have been experiencing tensions also might be likely to develop negative others-concepts. The implications of this inference for social behavior and classroom climate have already been discussed.

In our society females have consistently been found to have higher others-concepts than males (Barnett & Zucker, 1977; Zucker, 1976). This is not unexpected since American females up to recent times have tended to be more positive in their relationships with others and less aggressive than American males (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974).

Finally, the data indicate that there is often a relationship between people's socioeconomic status and their others-concepts. Children who come from more favorable socioeconomic backgrounds (as judged by their teachers) tend to have higher others-concepts than children from less favorable backgrounds (Barnett & Zucker, 1977; Burzynski, 1978; Zucker, 1976).

From this overview of others-concept studies, it is not difficult to conclude that for an individual, a high others-concept is more desirable than a low others-concept. Classrooms largely comprised of children with positive others-concepts would be preferable to classrooms whose students mainly have negative others-concepts. Educators would then be more effective in realizing their goals in the educational setting if the children in their classrooms interacted positively and fostered cooperative behavior, were at a high level of moral development, were conscientious, sensitive, self-disciplined, personally and socially adjusted, and otherwise free of symptoms often associated with personal or social problems that interfere with learning. In other words, the development and maintenance of high others-concepts in students would significantly facilitate the process of education, benefiting students and teachers as well.

IV. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE OTHERS-CONCEPT

Since the others-concept construct is of recent origin, the necessary longitudinal research is not yet available to allow definitive statements about how people develop their others-concepts. However, some tentative statements can be made based upon our present knowledge. The discussion will be presented in the form of general developmental considerations followed by an examination of specific influences on the others-concept, with concrete examples related to the educational setting. Readers should keep in mind, however, that other factors besides an individual's others-concept are involved in the selected examples.

Some General Developmental Considerations

At the time of birth and for a relatively short period early in life, children do not view themselves as being separate from objects or other people in their environment. Therefore, it would not seem appropriate to refer to a child's others-concept or self-concept during this early period of life. Most, if not all, children have concepts of themselves as distinct from objects and other people, however, by about age two and three, respectively (Gordon, 1969; Rogers, D., 1977, p. 114).

Although children cannot be said to have others-concepts as such until age two or three, they do have "others-concept forming experiences." Parental handling during infancy is one example of such a "forming experience." Early in life, the infant's significant other is usually his or her mother or a mother-substitute. The importance of "mothering" behavior during the first year of life has been emphasized by many theorists and research studies dealing with maternal deprivation, tactile stimulation, sensory deprivation, etc. (Bowlby, 1951, 1969; Casler, 1961; Harlow, 1974; Montagu, 1971; Robson, 1972; Robson & Moss, 1970, Schaffer, 1971; Stendler, 1952; Yarrow, 1963).

What implications do such findings have for the others-concept? The link may best be understood in Erikson's (1963) postulation that by the time infants are one year old, they have developed an attitude of basic trust or basic mistrust. Importantly, too, many authorities think that basic attitudes which are learned so early tend to become unconscious, i.e., not in our awareness, and thus self-perpetuating (Bernard & Huckins, 1975, p. 76; Brophy, 1977; Crandall, 1977; Kagan & Moss, 1960). Such an attitude of basic trust or basic mistrust would therefore tend to influence how a child experiences other people in the future. It would thus seem important to foster the development of basic trust and

attempt to prevent an attitude of basic mistrust in infants during their first year of life. In order to accomplish this goal, the first requisite probably is that the infant have a loving mother. Harlow's (1974) studies of infant love have generated the theory that infant love must be preceded by mother love.

As a child's social circle expands, fathers, siblings, relatives, peers, educators, and others also influence a child's developing others-concept. These social interactions shape, in large measure, the child's developing others-concept. Thus, during the preschool, kindergarten, and primary school years, teachers can play an active role in guiding and fostering others-concept development. As seems true with the self-concept, educational and psychological attempts to develop the others-concept may have their optimal effects during the early years.

The points previously discussed generally focus attention on the important influences of parental handling in infancy and other early social experiences on a child's emerging others-concept. In order to gain a more concrete understanding of how a child's others-concept may develop, specific aspects of a child's interactions with parents and other people must be delineated. Although the parents are usually the first people to have an influence on a child's emerging others-concept, the points to be discussed below apply also to teachers and other people who have contact with the child.

Some Specific Influences

Conditioning

The process by which a child learns to associate a feeling of pleasantness or unpleasantness with other people can be understood in terms of conditioning concepts. An association of pleasantness or unpleasantness can be acquired in relation to a child's mother through conditioning and later be extended to other people through the process of stimulus generalization. Conditioning and stimulus generalization, therefore, partially explain why some children, beginning with positive experiences with a mother, eventually come to react positively to most people. Similarly, the concept of stimulus discrimination can explain why some children eventually come to react differently to different types of people. Perhaps, for example, they have had positive experiences with mother and other females, but not with father and other males.

An understanding of these points can be helpful to teachers in several ways. In the first place, teachers should keep in mind that a child comes to them with an already developed others-concept. It might, for example, involve a positive orientation toward females, but fear or dislike of males. In that case, a male teacher should not take it personally when a child seems to react negatively toward him, even though the teacher feels that he did nothing to warrant the reaction. Instead he should set as a goal to have the child learn that men can also be pleasant people. Second, quite apart from whether or not the

student reacts differently to males, females, or any other group, teachers might remember that by patiently remaining pleasant, they can use conditioning principles to help foster students' positive feelings about other people, at least about teachers.

Social Learning

Social learning and modeling theory can account to a large extent for the ways in which children learn to interact with people as they grow older. The child acquires a repertoire of behaviors by observing and imitating parents and significant others in their social interactions. If the methods the child uses elicit positive responses from others, he or she is more likely to perceive people in a positive manner and anticipate positive behavior from them. Such a cycle of perceiving and responding is likely to enhance a positive others-concept. On the other hand, if the child's methods elicit negative responses from others, the probability of developing a negative others-concept is increased.

An implication for the school setting is that teachers should never forget that they serve as models for their students. If a child acquires good interpersonal skills by modeling after his or her teacher, that child is more likely to obtain positive reactions from other people and therefore feel more positive about other people. The teacher can also keep in mind that when students lack such interpersonal skills, they are more likely to have difficulties with other people, and this may well perpetuate the students' negative others-concepts. The challenge for the teacher, then, is to help students acquire better interpersonal skills so that the vicious circle for the student of negative interpersonal behavior leading to negative others-concept leading to negative interpersonal behavior, might be broken.

Some Personality Attributes

In addition to the tendencies acquired through conditioning and social learning experiences, there are attributes of a child's personality which may develop somewhat separately and have a relatively independent influence on a child's others-concept. Several of these attributes will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Hostility

If children have experiences which strongly arouse their hostility, they may direct this hostility outward toward other people. Even if they have learned good social skills from parents who were excellent models, some children have reason to become frustrated and angry, and they vent their hostility on others. A likely consequence for the child, if this were a consistent pattern, would be hostile reactions from others and an increasingly negative others-concept. The frustration-aggression hypothesis, i.e., the idea that frustration leads to aggression, has generated findings which indicate that experiences which involve blocking or denying important needs are likely to arouse hostility in a child (Aronson, 1972, p. 148; Bandura & Walters, 1959; Dollard, Doob, Miller,

Mowrer & Sears, 1939). These important needs include the need for a positive self-image, feelings of adequacy, feelings of independence and autonomy, and reasonable guidance and limits.

The blocking or denying of important needs can occur in any childhood environment, including the classroom. For example, consistent school failure and rejection by others are directly related to students' poor self-images (McCandless & Evan,1973). Children who do poorly academically and/or who are not well liked by their classmates have their needs for positive self-images and feelings of adequacy blocked. Hostility is likely to be aroused in such children, and it may find outward expression in such behaviors as not doing assigned homework, tattling, hitting, irritating classmates, ignoring or violating class rules, or other overt behavior. These behaviors, then, are likely to elicit negative responses from the students' teacher and classmates, which in turn are likely to further stimulate the development in the students of negative others-concepts.

Projection

Projection is a defense mechanism discussed by psychodynamically oriented psychologists. As a defense mechanism, its primary purpose is to protect the self from conditions of severe and sustained stress which cannot be resolved by the individual's other resources. Psychologists have used many different definitions of "projection," but the one most pertinent for the present discussion is generally referred to as "classical projection": to attribute our own unacceptable impulses, desires, and thoughts to others (Coleman, 1964).

If children should happen to have hostility generating experiences and also acquire the tendency to use classical projection rather frequently, these children would be likely in many situations to attribute their own hostility to others. Such a process would lead them to view others in a negative light, because other people would represent the shortcomings and unacceptable impulses that the children cannot tolerate in themselves. This would tend to have a negative influence on the others-concept of the child using projection as described.

In the school setting, students who are having academic difficulities may be unable to complete their daily homework assignments. Such a school experience may arouse hostility in a student. If the student is a frequent projector, he or she may project this hostility onto the teacher or classmates, thus viewing them as hostile. The student might complain, for example, that the teacher does not explain the lessons fully or never gives enough time to complete the assignments or ask questions, or that the classmates are such a bother that he or she cannot concentrate on what is being taught. As a result, the student's teacher or classmates are viewed in a negative light, and a negative others-concept is likely to be fostered in the student.

Inadequacy Feelings

When children acquire feelings of inadequacy, they sometimes tend to downgrade their perception of self as they upgrade their perception of others. Some theorists interpret such an occurrence as children's unsatisfactory attempts to master their environment, leading them to perceive themselves as inferior and the environment as superior (Adler, 1927; Craig, 1976, p. 277). These individuals might develop negative self-concepts along with positive others-concepts. When all other things are equal, students who are able to achieve and master the school's academic and social challenges are likely to view themselves, as well as their teachers and classmates, in a positive manner. Such children are therefore likely to develop positive self-concepts and positive others-concepts. On the other hand, children who do poorly academically, but have pleasant experiences and relate well to their teacher and classmates, may develop negative self-concepts but positive perceptions of others.

Group Frames of Reference

The concept of group or shared frames of reference (Newcomb, 1950; Sherif & Cantril, 1947), as it applies to others-concept development, indicates that through constant exposure to viewpoints prevalent in a social setting, an individual may develop an others-concept similar to that of others in that setting. If, for example, a child's family and close friends generally tend to view people with suspicion and distrust, the child will be more likely to do likewise (Aronson, 1972, pp. 188-190).

Consistently higher others-concepts among school-age children have been found to correlate positively with higher socioeconomic backgrounds as judged by teachers (Zucker & Barnett, 1977; Burzynski, 1978). Although other factors may be involved, it would appear that different socioeconomic backgrounds provide somewhat different group frames of reference for perceiving other people.

Each classroom has its own social climate or environment. In fact, teachers often talk about the "personalities" of various classrooms. The implication relevant to the others-concept and group frames of reference is that the social climate of a classroom is partly organized around each student's others-concept. The student's others-concept and the classroom climate influence each other reciprocally. The concept of group frames of reference nevertheless reminds us that the potential is ever present for a positive classroom climate to improve students' others-concepts.

Empirical evidence relating classroom climate and students' others-concepts has recently been obtained (Galluzzi, 1978). It must be recognized, however, that many other individual and group factors also have significant influences on classroom climate. The dynamics of group behavior which may affect social climate are discussed in detail by Shaw (1971) and include physical aspects of the environment (e.g., territoriality, personal space, and spatial arrangements); personal aspects in addition to an individual's others-concept (e.g., age, sex, abilities,

and a variety of personal characteristics); aspects of group structure (e.g., roles, norms, status, leadership, and social power); and task characteristics (e.g., individual and group goals, types of tasks, etc.). Specific information on classroom environments can be found in Anderson, 1970; Anderson & Walberg, 1974; Insel & Moos, 1974; Moos, 1976; Moos and Insel, 1974; Walberg 1968, 1969, 1976; and Walberg & Anderson, 1968.

From the discussion thus far, it should be readily apparent that teachers can play a significant role in helping to foster positive others-concepts in their students. Teachers who have positive others-concepts themselves will find many opportunities for influencing the others-concepts of their students. Some of this will occur without any conscious effort on the teacher's part, but by being aware of the others-concept construct and the important factors which have an influence on others-concept development, the teacher's impact may be significantly enhanced.

V. ASSESSING A STUDENT'S OTHERS-CONCEPT

Teachers who are concerned about the others-concepts of their students need to have some means of assessment. This may be accomplished through formal testing and informal procedures. Both approaches will be discussed in this section.

The Paired Hands Test

The *Paired Hands Test* (PHT) is an instrument specifically used for assessing the others-concept (Zucker & Barnett, 1977). It is the test which has been used in the others-concept research summarized in the previous sections. When the services of a school psychologist or other professional person trained in educational and psychological measurement are available to a teacher, the PHT can be group-administered to an entire class in a half-hour and then computer scored. From the scores the teacher can readily judge who in the class may have low or high others-concepts. The mean PHT score for the class can also be studied, helping the teacher make judgments about the class as a whole. If intervention activities are then implemented, such as those to be described in the next section, the class can be retested at another time. By comparing the mean scores obtained from the first and second testings, the teacher has information for determining whether or not improvement in others-concept took place both for individual students and for the class as a whole.

Individual PHT scores should be interpreted with caution. Since test-retest reliability of the PHT has been found to be about .72, it can be assumed that a particular child's PHT score is not always an accurate representation of his or her others-concept. It is for this reason that it is recommended that the interpretation be done by a psychologist or other professional person trained in educational and psychological measurement. In general, attention should be paid only to children who score at least one standard deviation above or below the mean for their age group.

It would be wise to avoid labeling them as high or low others-concept children, however, because there will undoubtedly be some students who were not taking the test seriously or who for some other reason did not obtain a score which accurately reflects the quality of their others-concepts. It is safer to think of such identifications tentatively. The teacher should consider whether careful observations as described later in this section also suggest that these students have high or low others-concepts. With respect to low others-concept children this procedure should serve the purpose of calling to the teacher's attention children who may have low others-concepts and probably would benefit from

positive efforts to improve their others-concepts. Identifying students who may have high others-concepts is also an advantage because teachers can use high others-concept children in creative ways to help enhance the others-concepts of children who have low others-concepts.

The PHT was orginally developed in 1966 to evaluate possible increases in friendliness among children who were participating in the Children's International Summer Villages program (Zucker & Jordan, 1968). Since that time it has undergone several revisions and currently is available in three forms, the PHT-E (Zucker & Barnett, 1977) for grades 4 through 6, the PHT-S (Zucker, Burzynski, & Skelton, 1977) for grades 7 through 12, and the PHT-A (Zucker & Burzynski, 1977) for adults. Presently, a lower extension of the PHT is being developed for the primary grades and also for use with some handicapped children.

The PHT is described fully in the manual (Zucker & Barnett, 1977), but will be summarized briefly here. It is an individually or group administered scale specifically designed to measure a person's others-concept. In format it encompasses features of both projective and objective tests. It consists of twenty photographs or slides (for group administration) each showing one black hand and one white hand in a relationship which implies an interaction between the two hands.

Figure 1 shows the practice photograph used in introducing the PHT.

Figure 1

Scale Position	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Descriptions provided for judges to anchor scaling	Very warm, very kind; Very close feeling	Very enjoyable, helping; Playing together; Very cooperative	Pleasant interaction without necessarily close feeling; Working together; Cooperation; Friendly competition	Perfunctory; Indifferent; Businesslike	Annoying; Competition with some hostility; Practical joke	Very rude; Competition with strong hostility; Very unpleasant	Cruel; Physical hurt; Severe hostility

Figure 2

Weights used in scoring PHT responses

In administering the test, photographs or slides are shown one at a time, and those taking the test are asked to respond in terms of what they think the hands are doing. This response is made by selecting one out of five statements provided for each photograph or slide. These statements describe possible interactions between the people in the photographs in quality from "very warm, loving, or kind" to "hostile, hurtful, or very aggressive." Examples of statements that may be chosen for the practice photograph shown in Figure 1 are "friends climbing a fence" or "shoving and reaching for something they both want."

The statements used in the PHT have been given objective weights on the basis of Thurstone's equal-appearing interval scaling procedure (See Figure 2).

As indicated in Figure 2, the statements in the PHT range from "extremely positive" (scale score of 7) to "extremely negative" (scale score of 1), with a "neutral" statement assigned a scale score of 4. To arrive at an individual's others-concept score, the scaled scores of the responses chosen for each of the twenty photographs or slides are summed.

It should be noted that when a child is tested individually, a variation of the above procedure can be used in which the multiple choice format is omitted, and in its place the child is shown the photographs and is asked to present his or her own ideas of what the people whose hands are shown are doing. These responses may also be scored fairly objectively on the same 7 to 1 scale. A psychologist may be able to provide the teacher with a more accurate appraisal of a particular child's others-concept when this open-ended procedure is used.

Careful Observations

Before making any judgments about a person's others-concept on the basis of behavioral observations, there are some very important points about behavioral observations which should be understood.

1. The intent of the behavior and what the observer thinks is the intent may be two different things. For example, what looks like an avoidance of making friends in the class because of a seemingly snobbish attitude may really be a result of shyness or lack of knowledge of how to "break the ice" with other children.

2. A tendency to overgeneralize from isolated behaviors must be avoided. It is important to observe the full range of a person's actions and look for consistencies in the behavior patterns.

3. Research has shown that much of an individual's behavior is specific to the setting in which it occurs (Mischel, 1971). Therefore, many behaviors may be situation-specific, i.e., they will occur in some situations but not in others. Anyone who attempts to make a judgment about a personal attribute of a person, such as his/her others-concept, on the basis of

observations of that person's behavior must be careful to temper the observations of isolated events and look for consistencies which occur in diverse situations.

Teachers can carefully and thoughtfully draw many astute inferences about their students' others-concepts from behavioral observation if these cautions are kept in mind. Research has repeatedly demonstrated that children who have high others-concepts differ significantly in their actual behavior in some important respects from children who have low others-concepts.

The types of behaviors to look for have already been indicated. High others-concept children tend more often to be warm, supportive, considerate, helpful, and cooperative. They also are more likely to be accommodating, sensitive, conscientious, forthright, spontaneous, and self-disciplined. Low others-concept children tend more often to be abrasive, inconsiderate, and uncooperative. On the basis of Whiteman's research, it can be expected that high others-concept children will tend more often to show concerns for the individual rights of other children, while low others-concept children will show fewer such concerns and more negativistic attitudes toward social convention.

These differences will not always be apparent, of course, because most children will show both positive and negative behavior at various times. Also, some situations more than others will bring out differences in behavior between high and low others-concept children. After many observations a consistent pattern should gradually emerge. It should be kept in mind, though, that some children who appeared not to be friendly showed on testing that they had high others-concepts. Further exploration revealed that their reticence to make friends in the classroom did not result from negative perceptions of others, but rather from lack of social competence. So careful thought should be given to any observations, and follow-up testing might often be advisable.

Among the various types of situations in which children can be observed, perhaps the most helpful for gaining insight concerning their others-concepts are small group situations in which children are working together on a task or playing a game. It was from such situations involving groups of three or four children working together that the behavioral evidence supporting the others-concept construct was obtained. Children are frequently less inhibited when they are involved with their own age group than when they are interacting with adults. Observations of peer group interactions, therefore, may often more clearly reveal others-concept data than observations of student-teacher interactions. Peer group situations will particularly provide opportunities for teachers to observe students who work cooperatively with others to achieve group goals and those who tend to sabotage such efforts.

That is not to say that observations of teacher-student interactions cannot also be revealing. Alert teachers may find food for thought when they notice a child who frequently bickers with other children and then complains to the teacher how the others are to blame, or when they observe

students who seem to relate to the teacher in a consistently suspicious, distrustful, or hostile manner. Teachers should be aware, though, that low others-concept children who have good social skills may be able to hide their true feelings about other people and present an amiable facade to the teacher. They are less likely to be able to do this consistently in their relationships with peers.

Other Related Variables

Research has revealed that certain categories of children have better than average chances of having low others-concepts. Males, for example, have been generally found as a group to have slightly, but significantly, lower others-concepts than females. This was not found to occur in the Burzynski cross-national study referred to earlier, but it has been a consistent finding among American samples. Obviously, it would be erroneous to categorize all American males as having low others-concepts; this is not what the research has shown. There is much overlap among boys and girls, and among men and women, but the odds favor there being a few more boys than girls in a given classroom who have low others-concepts. This information can be helpful to teachers only as a very general guide. In like manner, several other variables which have been found to be related to the others-concept may be helpful to keep in mind, as long as the caution not to over-generalize is remembered.

Socioeconomic status has been found consistently to be related to a person's others-concept. Children who have had unfavorable socioeconomic backgrounds as a group are a little more likely to have low others-concepts. Children who have grown up in settings where there has been considerable violence and tension are likewise a little more prone as a group to have low others-concepts. Children who have been identified or appear to be personally or socially maladjusted, educationally handicapped, emotionally disturbed, or learning disabled are also more likely as a group to have low others-concepts. Finally, it has been found that when a teacher feels that certain children are having some difficulties in the classroom, but the teacher cannot articulate what those difficulties are, these students as a group are somewhat more prone to have low others-concepts (Hart, 1975).

The phrase "as a group" was used frequently in the above paragraph. Group trends are often misleading when applied to individuals, but they can be helpful when properly used for guiding the sensitive teacher as he or she gives thought to each student. In the final analysis, however, it will be the information gained from testing and behavioral observations of individual students which will affect the teacher's judgment of students' others-concepts.

VI. TEACHER APPLICATIONS: INFLUENCING OTHERS-CONCEPTS

How can teachers influence the others-concepts of their students? How can they help improve or maintain positive others-concepts which were formed in earlier years? How can they change or remediate negative others-concepts? Some general answers to these questions were provided in the section on the development of the others-concept. Specific influences on the others-concept, such as conditioning and modeling, were discussed and examples were presented of how teachers can apply these theoretical principles in order to have a significant impact on others-concept development. Many teachers, however, will want more concrete suggestions.

The present section provides a wide variety of practical suggestions and ideas from many different sources. Most of them were not developed originally for others-concept enhancement, but they have been selected for inclusion because they are relevant. They can be thought of as concrete practical applications of the theoretical principles discussed earlier.

Building And Maintaining Positive Others-Concepts

Early Childhood

The importance of having an impact on the early phases of human development in a wide variety of areas to set the stage for optimum later development has been widely recognized (Bloom, 1964). The influence of early experience in setting the stage for positive interpersonal relations has also been strongly indicated (Glasser, 1965; Gray, 1958; Maslow, 1968; Montagu, 1970). Though infants and very young children are not typically directly available to educators, they can be indirectly reached through their parents or through others who interact with them.

While it is not easy for educators to gain support for programs aimed at infants and young children, a case could be made that this focus deserves high priority insofar as the others-concept and social relationships are concerned. Such programs could include outreach efforts to educate the general community in parenting and human relations. They could also be directed at those presently in school who will eventually have primary influence as parents.

If school systems and their teachers are to embark on efforts to prepare future parents to have a positive impact on the social development of their children, their approach should be multifaceted. An understanding of basic principles and their practical applications would

be necessary in the areas of primary and secondary socialization (McCandless, 1970), developmental stages (Erikson, 1963; Kohlberg, 1965; Maslow, 1968; Piaget & Inhelder, 1969); parenting (Dobson, 1973; Glasser, 1972; Gordon, 1970); and behavioral management (Krumboltz & Krumboltz, 1972). These topics and their relationship with the development of the others-concept are so important that they deserve further analysis beyond the scope of this monograph.

The School Years

Starting points and objectives. Schools, and classrooms in particular, provide excellent opportunities for influencing others-concept development and maintenance. Whether at the elementary or the secondary level, teachers can control or facilitate positive interpersonal relations and interactions for significant periods of time ranging from forty minutes to several hours a day. The major focus of this section will be on alternatives for using opportunities present during the school day. It should be recognized, however, that many of these alternatives could be translated into extensions beyond the school setting and into the home and community environment.

Prior to a focus on the others-concept, the self-concept should be discussed briefly. The importance of the self-concept in promoting positive personal adjustment and development has been long recognized. Its particular relevance to the others-concept has been mentioned earlier in this monograph. For many years teachers have talked about and attempted to influence the self-concepts of their students. Anyone seriously planning to attempt to improve others-concepts must by necessity give consideration to the self-concept too. Those desiring guidelines and techniques for promoting positive self-concepts will find them in many sources, including an earlier monograph in this series (Antes & Antes, 1976) and books and materials by Purkey (1970), Sisk (1972), and Telker (1974).

Those who set out to promote positive others-concepts would probably appreciate being given a clear set of instructional objectives in progressive and hierarchial order. The others-concept and its real life expressions have not been sufficiently studied to make this possible at this time, but efforts underway show promise of providing such objectives in the future. It is probably wise at present, with the knowledge already acquired, to establish general behavioral objectives, investigate taxonomies developed by others, and choose those goals and procedures most appropriate to one's own talents, competencies, and interpersonal environment. Certainly one should set out to influence students toward realistically optimistic expectations for positive relationships with others, relationships associated with good feelings, affection, mutual positive regard, dependability-predictability, and mutual productivity. Those wishing to develop a systematic approach may find helpful the affective objectives found in the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II* (Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964). The teacher would attempt to motivate students to recognize and attend selectively to positive aspects of interaction between persons; to accept and respond in kind to others' initiatives at communication, play, and teamwork in problem solving; and to initiate interactions themselves with others. Although

the systematic pursuit of such objectives is recommended, the state of the art does not allow us to prescribe one set of objectives over others. The interested reader, therefore, should review a variety of sources including the work of Baker & Popham (1973) and Mager (1968).

Affective education. Statements made thus far make it apparent that the others-concept resides largely within the affective domain. Affective education has received a great deal of attention during the last decade and many of its subsumed concepts, techniques, and strategies relate directly or indirectly to promoting the others-concept. While many of these seem to warrant specific attention in this monograph, no attempt is made at comprehensive coverage of all the ideas in affective education which may be useful. The reader who wishes further detail and suggestions will find helpful the articles by Henderson (1972), Medway & Smith (1978), Treffinger, Borgers, Render & Hoffman (1976), and the publications by the Affective Aspects of Education Special Interest Group of the American Educational Research Association (Thayer & Beeler, 1974-77).

In taking steps to influence the others-concepts of students in accord with previous comments about the self-concept, it seems logical for the teacher first to focus attention on the individual student. One of the great adventures of life is the growth in awareness of "who I am and can be," which is a first-person phenomenon experienced through interactions with others. Maslow (1968) and Glasser (1965) have indicated that basic human needs, including self-esteem and worthiness, can only be met through interactions with others. With this in mind a teacher might very well, as part of a grand plan, set out to help students gain a clearer and more positive view of who they are. Values clarification exercises have been found useful and quite popular among educators. Simon, Howe, & Kirshenbaum (1972) and Kniker (1977) provide useful direction in this area and offer suggestions which make it easy to develop interactions among students that are likely to lead to tolerant and supportive relationships.

In the same vein, strength awareness experiences may be useful. These are activities in which the individual and/or associates, after becoming sufficiently acquainted with one another, develop and communicate a list of present and potential strengths perceived for the individual, sometimes in a rapid brainstorming-like atmosphere. This can be followed by a discussion of ways to elicit and enhance those strengths. It can be readily seen how group activities such as these, which focus on important positive personal characteristics, can lead to a sense of acceptance, esteem, and support from others.

Values clarification and strength awareness exercises fall within the broader areas of human relations training and the human potential movement. A number of orientations and techniques within these areas might fit well into programs intended to build and maintain positive others-concepts. Gazda, Walters, and Childers (1975) have suggested a set of steps going from self-exploration, to self-understanding and commitment, and on to action. These steps incorporate the experiencing and development of empathy, respect, warmth, concreteness, genuineness,

self-disclosure, confrontation, and immediacy. Each of these is amenable to translation into classroom goals and procedures and provides opportunities for positive interpersonal experiences. Communication and empathy training in and of themselves can lead to a sense of competence in sharing feelings and ideas with others, in understanding others, and in predicting the reactions of others. If responsible self-disclosure experiences are added to these, students may learn more about themselves and find themselves and others enjoying mutual support of risk and growth for one another. Jourard (1971) has described benefits and cautions to be associated with such self-disclosure.

The communications processes suggested above might be best pursued by the classroom teacher initially through low-key but stimulating classroom meeting formats. Both Glasser (1969) and Palomares (1974) have developed, practiced, described, and trained others to conduct classroom meetings that foster self-awareness, positive self-concepts, and supportive interaction. These meetings involve stimulating but surprisingly simple topics, and may be used successfully by most teachers with students of any age level.

Student participation will often be most enthusiastic if there is a game-like atmosphere associated occasionally with classroom activities. Simulation games and procedures may be found in some of the resources already listed. *Simulation in the Classroom* by Taylor and Walford (1972) and *The Guide to Simulations/Games for Education and Training* by Zuckerman and Horn (1973) should also be useful resources for teachers. Regular practice in the use of game and simulation exercises in different classes with different groups helps the educator develop smoothness and naturalness as a facilitator. It also helps the educator develop an extensive repertoire of applications to share with students.

Affective education curricula can be found in the writings of Weinstein & Fantini (1970), Van Camp (1973), and, particularly for those seeking an integration of cognitive and affective approaches, Brown (1971). The affective curriculum planned should certainly give attention to discipline procedures likely to support positive self- and others-concepts, such as Glasser's (1972) and Dreikurs & Casel's (1972). The Developing Understanding of Self and Others (DUSO) Kits (Dinkmeyer, 1969) present a particularly popular affective development program for school use. The Transactional Analysis orientation will appeal to some teachers as a general interpersonal-relations curriculum focus (Berne, 1961; Harris, 1969; James, 1977).

One-to-one and small group activities, alone or in association with a major curriculum thrust, can be planned by teachers around a myriad of academic and non-academic projects, problems, tools and goals. A simple and often successful procedure involves having the student in need tutor or be tutored by other students in a basic skill or special interest area. Cross-age teaching and peer-teaching are discussed in the following references: Allen & Feldman, 1973; Deterline, 1970; DeVries & Edwards, 1973; Dillner, 1972; Hagan & Noeller, 1971; Thelen, 1969; Weinstein et. al, 1970. Almost any project that will facilitate genuine sharing of strengths

and expressing of mutual respect can be profitable. As a teacher considers pairing or grouping students, the best matchings might be made through gathering and using sociometric data. Such data are easy to gather (Gronlund, 1959; Northway, 1940) and can provide information about the potential for positive relations among students which might not be gained otherwise through casual or even formal observation and interview procedures.

Interaction among individuals brings to mind the special values associated with modeling theories and practices. An entire issue of *The School Psychology Digest* (1975) is devoted to modeling. Bandura (1971) has indicated that human behavior is influenced greatly by exposure to social models. It would therefore be logical to highlight the behavior of those students and adults who are valued by students and who effectively model positive others-concepts.

Behavioral management. In closing this section on the building and maintaining of positive others-concepts during the school years, it seems appropriate to mention the potential of behavior modification or management as an orientation useful in pursuing specific changes. More attention will be given to this topic in the next section, but suffice it to say that a teacher can reinforce and shape behaviors selectively to improve students' others-concepts. A general overview of these procedures--such as Bryen (1975), Krumboltz & Krumboltz (1972), or Poteet (1973)--should aid the interested teacher in making plans for such efforts.

Remediating and Correcting Negative Others-Concepts During the School Years

A negative others-concept may seriously limit an individual's ability (a) to meet his or her basic needs, (b) to experience the support of others in risking new growth, development, and awareness of self; and (c) to be a catalyst or facilitator of the development of others.

The enthusiasm and effort teachers exhibit in attempting to shift negative others-concepts in positive directions are certainly to be commended. Before identifying some of the options available for such attempts, a few notes of caution should be sounded. The degree to which a negative others-concept exists needs to be determined before extensive steps are taken to change an individual's behavioral-attitudinal characteristics, especially if those steps tend to single out that person from the peer reference group. There are individuals who are comfortable, productive, and even quite happy and well adjusted, while not gregarious or "normally" involved with others. Glasser (1970) has indicated that there is an important distinction between those who may choose to be alone and those who are truly lonely. Bower (1967) and Maslow (1968) clearly indicate the importance of positive relationships with others for effective functioning. They also note, however, that those who are well adjusted are also capable of acting on their own, away from the crowd, and, in fact, sometimes act in conflict with others' desires or actions.

There are individuals who express for a very brief time negative feelings and expectations regarding others because of dramatic negative events they have experienced. These reactions, while not fitting any commonly held perception of a positive others-concept, can be reality based and are likely to diminish and be replaced by previously expressed positive attitudes and behaviors given the normal course of events.

There are individuals, therefore, whose others-concepts do not appear to fit an idealized, optimum form at a particular point in time but who are not significantly limited in their long-term development and who should not be the focus of more than ordinary classroom procedures to promote and maintain positive others-concepts. It is recommended that before anyone takes steps to modify the others-concept of a specific individual, there should be evidence of the need not only in repeated *Paired Hands Tests* results but also in observable behavior or in the judgments of significant others (e.g., parents or peers) as was discussed in Section 5. When an educator suspects serious difficulties to be associated with a negative others-concept, it would also be wise to consult with the school counselor or psychologist.

Positive involvement with one person. If the existence of negative others-concepts has been determined, many procedures and techniques are available for an educator's consideration, such as those mentioned previously in this monograph. Before other more intensive techniques are used, a sensitive, responsible person who has a positive others-concept and, preferably, a valued status among peers, should be chosen to become genuinely involved (Glasser, 1965) with the student of concern through common interests, projects, or experiences of any acceptable type. This sensitive person's positive noncontingent reinforcement of the type recommended by McCandless (1970) could be quite constructive. This person might be a peer or adult, in or out of the school environment. For some individuals involvement and positive relations with one person, who accepts and values them and who can be trusted, will be essential as a prerequisite for positive involvement with others. The more serious the student's personal and social maladjustment, the more appropriate it will be for this relationship to be with a competent counselor or psychologist.

Group experience formats. There are many ways in which groups can be used for correcting negative others-concepts. Glasser's (1969) classroom meetings, if sensitively facilitated by the teacher, can be used to focus positively on an individual. These meetings can help a student develop a new awareness of his acceptance by others and his own competence. An audiotape series is available that guides the teacher in developing competencies for classroom meetings. (Glasser, 1972). Communication and empathy-training experiences would also be appropriate. Some teachers may wish to consider using the rigorous formats associated with sensitivity training, encounter groups, and T-groups. Often professional resources in the school or general community offer help to teachers implementing such programs or provide the services themselves. Caution should be used in this last area since it has received so much adverse publicity. However, the positive potential inherent in such

programs should not be overlooked. Teachers who wish to consider these approaches should review the relevant literature (Rogers, 1970) and seek the advice of specialists.

Group counseling may be an available or potentially available option in some school systems. Ohlsen (1973) has described its characteristics. The benefits associated with somewhat structured and facilitated peer interaction aimed at developing communication, trust mutual respect, reality testing, and realistic encouragement for change cannot be over emphasized. It is also worth remembering that religious organizations and institutions in a community are likely to offer many group experiences in a relatively warm, accepting interpersonal environment. Students with others-concept problems, if already associated with such organizations and institutions, could certainly be helped to find and use these resources.

Replacing negative feelings with positive feelings. Attitudes, feelings, and experiences associated with prejudice toward minority or culturally different groups are not dissimilar from those associated with a generalized negative others-concept. Both involve misunderstandings, overgeneralization, and stereotyping from atypical dramatic events, as well as personal feelings of inadequacy, insecurity, and defensive reactions. Programs developed to overcome these components of prejudice and to replace them with positive experiences, feelings, and habits of thought may be easily translated into forms useful to teachers. The Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development (1970) and many other sources (California Council for Social Studies Review, 1973; Krantz & Siplin, 1971; Myers & Bishop 1970; Walker & Hamilton, 1973) have provided recommendations and, in some cases, supportive materials for such efforts.

Team-building. Team-building projects and simulation games, as mentioned previously have potential for developing respect, values, trust, and mutual support. School settings provide almost limitless opportunities for team-building experiences. Groups involved in stimulating and valued tasks which offer positive experiences for students either exist or could exist in every school. Curricular and extracurricular activities should be considered. A classical experiment by Sherif et. al. (1961) indicated that strongly competitive and negative feelings could be overcome if individuals in groups were involved in cooperative efforts to achieve shared goals. In *Psychology Today: An Introduction* (1972), four major factors are described as crucial in achieving such effects: (1) participants must cooperate to achieve a shared goal, (2) contact should be relatively intimate and long lasting, (3) contact should take place in a social climate of acceptance, and (4) participants in the situation should have equal status. In a particular school community an ecological project or raising money for a field trip, athletic, or musical competition, or other team activities might provide the stimulus for improving others-concepts.

Dramatic events. In order to stimulate others-concept change, it may be necessary to involve the student in dramatic and unusual experiences which will require a reassessment and reorientation to self and others.

This might not be easy to do within one's own school community, but fortunately, resources are available to accomplish this goal. For example, Outward Bound programs and survival training programs are potential catalysts. Hart and a colleague have offered a course, susceptible to secondary school translation, which begins with team-building group process exercises and shifts to a 250-mile cross country bicycle trip emphasizing the basics of living, interpersonal relations, and personal and group responsibility. Significant positive change appears to occur under such conditions. In the last mentioned program preliminary results from pre and posttesting with the PHT indicate that significant positive gains have taken place.

Self-fulfilling prophecies and role playing. The consideration of self-fulfilling prophecies which incorporate positive attitudes and expectations regarding interactions with others is worthy of educators' attention. If the teacher's subtle actions indicate the student is expected to relate well to others, the student may actually do so (Rosenthal, 1973).

Role-playing techniques can be used to clarify others-concept feelings and to practice behaviors consistent with a positive others-concept. A creative teacher might develop a stimulating series of role-playing experiences that would be of particular value to one or a few students while of some interest and benefit to all. Although written resources are available to give direction (Altmann & Firnesz, 1973; Baldwin, 1973), professional personnel in a school system might provide equally valuable guidance if it is desired.

Behavior modification. Behavioral management and behavior modification procedures have been mentioned as providing alternative strategies. The reference given previously (Poteet, 1973) should be useful for more intensive efforts. In addition, consideration should be given to orientations such as those suggested by Hewett (1968, 1974) and Homme (1973). Hewett has specifically identified the social area of functioning as being critically important to successful development. He has suggested evaluation standards for determining success which emphasize acceptance and approval from others. Hewett presents recommendations for the practical steps a teacher must take to make behavioral management work, including a list of reinforcement alternatives ranging from the clearly tangible and extrinsic to the more abstract and intrinsic. In considering the use of behavioral management, the teacher should keep in mind that both classical conditioning (associating positive experiences simultaneously with close proximity and interaction with others) and operant conditioning (insuring that rewarding experiences follow positive association and interaction with others) are applicable. When helping people through behavioral management techniques, it is important to take into consideration their background experiences and their responses to rewards. McKeachie (1973) has made it clear that the motivational characteristics of the person of concern must be incorporated in plans to help. Therefore, it is highly recommended that the student to be helped be included in the planning stage, directly whenever possible, and particularly that reinforcements chosen are known to be rewarding to the student.

Audio-visual supports. One of the more stimulating ways to provide feedback to students regarding behavioral change, or to provide them with objective data about social interaction, is through the media of video and audiotape. Many school systems now have the equipment and expertise necessary for the practical application of videotape. The use of videotape in human relations training has been described by Martin (1971). It is not difficult to imagine a scene in which a student, with an understanding teacher or counselor present, reviews his or her own behavior and that of others on videotape in order to judge the quantity and quality of change accomplished in social behavior and to set goals for further change. Certainly a student could be aided through such a process to become a better evaluator, predictor, and manager of social interactions. Kravas (1975) has described the use of videotape to measure teacher affective sensitivity in a manner that would be helpful in this context.

VII. CONCLUSION

During the past few decades there has been considerable emphasis on students' self-concepts. The information presented in this monograph suggests that equal consideration should be given to students' others-concepts. To paraphrase a set of terms from Transactional Analysis, we need more people who not only think that they are okay but who think that other people are okay too. It is hoped that teachers who read this monograph will start to think about the others-concept of each of their students. The research findings cited should be sufficient to indicate that positive others-concepts are likely to have decided benefits for individuals, groups, and society as a whole. Not that a positive others-concept is a panacea for all human relations problems, but it certainly seems to be an important factor for teachers to understand and consider.

The major aim of this monograph is to go beyond convincing teachers that others-concept enhancement is a worthy goal. It is hoped that teachers who have read this monograph will (a) have an idea of some of the factors which influence a person's others-concept and (b) have found some practical suggestions for enhancing the others-concepts of their students.

Recently in a suburban elementary school the film "Cipher in the Snow" was shown to the teachers after school. This film depicts the devastating effects that rejection and devaluation by others have on a student. The viewing of the film was followed by a discussion of the degree to which the affective development of students was being overlooked and of the importance of helping students who may be finding little or no satisfaction in their relationships with others. The teachers started to work immediately to identify those students in their classes who were not experiencing interpersonal satisfaction and growth. They then began to set forces to work inside and outside their classrooms to produce positive changes. It is hoped that this monograph provides direction for such teachers by presenting and explaining the others-concept, a construct around which their efforts can be focused, and by providing specific ideas and techniques for carrying out these efforts.

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